# ACCUMULATION OF NICOTINE IN PANCREATIC ISLETS AND CALCITONIN-PRODUCING CELLS IN MICE AND CHICKS DEMONSTRATED BY MICRO- AND WHOLE-BODY AUTORADIOGRAPHY

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(Received 5 October 1972)

#### SUMMARY

By autoradiographic methods, nicotine was shown to be specifically accumulated in the pancreatic islets in mice. The results also indicated a high accumulation of nicotine in the parafollicular cells of the thyroid in mice and an accumulation was also shown in the ultimobranchial glands in chicks. Like the parafollicular cells of the thyroid in mammals, the ultimobranchial glands of birds are known to produce calcitonin. Metabolic studies with nicotine in vitro and autoradiographic studies with the main nicotine-metabolite cotinine, indicated an accumulation of unchanged nicotine (not metabolites) in the cells.

The results are discussed in view of the fact that biogenic amines have been shown to be operative in these endocrine organs. It is suggested that nicotine can share common transport and/or storage mechanisms with biogenic amines in the cells. An effect of nicotine on hormone storage and/or release may take place via an interference with aminergic mechanisms in the cells.

## INTRODUCTION

Nicotine may exert pharmacological effects on a number of different tissues such as the adrenal medulla, the hypophysis, and sympathetic and parasympathetic ganglia (see Volle & Koelle, 1970). Nicotine has also been shown to accumulate in tissues where the effects are exerted. This has been found to be the case in the adrenal medulla, the hypophysis and the superior cervical ganglion (Hansson & Schmiterlöw, 1962; Appelgren, Hansson & Schmiterlöw, 1963; Brown, Hoffmann & Roth, 1969).

The adrenal medulla and the hypophysis have been classified among a group of endocrine polypeptide hormone-secreting cells called the APUD series (amine precursor uptake and decarboxylating series) (for review see Pearse, 1969). (The polypeptide suggested to be produced by the adrenal medulla is chromogranin (Smith &

Winkler, 1967; Pearse, 1969).) To this group of cell systems also belong the pancreatic islets, the calcitonin-producing parafollicular cells of the mammalian thyroid (Bussolati & Pearse, 1967; Kracht, Hachmeister, Brevstedt, Bönicke & Lenke, 1968) and the ultimobranchial gland (UBG) (Pearse, 1969) which is known to produce calcitonin in birds, amphibians and fishes (Hirsch & Munson 1969; Copp, 1969). The cells of the APUD series share several common characteristics, such as the ability to synthesize and store dopamine and serotonin (see, for example, Falck, Larsson, von Mecklenburg, Rosengren & Svenaeus, 1964; Ritzén, Hammarström & Ullberg, 1965; Cegrell, 1968; Almquist, Malmquist, Owman, Ritzén, Sundler & Swedin, 1971; Tjälve & Slanina, 1971), and the presence of a strong positive reaction for pseudoor true cholinesterase (Coupland, 1958; Pearse, 1969; Almquist et al. 1971).

The present study was performed to investigate whether nicotine is accumulated in the pancreatic islets, the parafollicular cells of the thyroid and the cells of UBG. Such an accumulation may indicate an effect of nicotine in these cells analogous to the case in the adrenal medulla, the hypophysis and the superior cervical ganglion. An investigation was also performed to see if cotinine, a major nicotine metabolite (McKennis, 1960; Hansson & Schmiterlöw, 1962; Stålhandske, 1970), is accumulated in the pancreatic islets or the parafollicular cells. In addition an in-vitro study of nicotine metabolism in the pancreas was undertaken.

#### MATERIALS AND METHODS

Labelled substances. The labelled compounds used were nicotine [N-methyl-<sup>14</sup>C] bitartrate (sp. act. 24 mCi/mmol), [<sup>3</sup>H]nicotine (generally labelled; sp. act. 324 mCi/mmol) and [2-<sup>14</sup>C]I-cotinine (sp. act. 35 mCi/mmol). The labelled nicotine compounds were obtained from the Radiochemical Centre, Amersham, England. [2-<sup>14</sup>C]-Cotinine was kindly donated by Dr Herbert McKennis, Jr, Richmond, Va., U.S.A.

Experimental animals. Male albino mice of the NMRI strain weighing 20 g were used. They were fed a standard pellet diet (Ewos, Sweden) and received water ad libitum.

For the distribution studies in chicks, male White Leghorn 16-day-old chickens (weight about 130 g) were used. The birds were fed a standard growth diet (Forss, Sweden) and had free access to drinking water.

Whole-body autoradiography. [14C]Nicotine was injected into a tail vein in each of five mice at a dose of 10  $\mu$ Ci/animal (calculated as 3.4 mg/kg). The survival times were 5 min, 15 min, 30 min, 1 h and 2 h. Two mice were also given an i.v. injection of 10  $\mu$ Ci cotinine (corresponding to 2.5 mg/kg) and were killed 5 and 30 min after the injection.

Three chicks were each given an injection into a radial vein of 14  $\mu$ Ci [¹⁴C]nicotine (corresponding to 0.6 mg nicotine/kg). The chicks were allowed to survive for 5 min, 30 min and 2 h respectively.

After the survival periods stated above the animals were anaesthetized with ether and killed by immersion in a mixture of hexane and solid  $CO_3$  (-78 °C). Then they were embedded in carboxymethylcellulose mixed with water. Saggital sections (20 or 30  $\mu$ m thick) of the whole frozen animals were cut and dried at -15 °C according to Ullberg's autoradiographic technique by which each section is mounted on

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tape (no. 810 Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Co.) (Ullberg, 1954, 1958). The tape-mounted sections were pressed against X-ray film (Kodirex; Kodak) and stored in a press at -15 °C. After the exposure time, varying from 2 weeks to 2 months, the films were developed and the sections were stained with haematoxylin and eosin. For semiquantitative evaluation of whole-body autoradiograms the radioactivity in different organs was compared with autoradiograms of a simultaneously exposed <sup>14</sup>C-isotope standard (Berlin & Ullberg, 1963).

Microautoradiography. [3H]Nicotine was injected into a tail vein in each of six mice at a dose of 0.25 mCi in 0.2 ml distilled water (corresponding to 0.25 mg nicotine/kg). The survival periods based upon the results of the whole-body autoradiographic experiments were 5 and 30 min. The mice were killed by decapitation (three at each time interval) and specimens from the pancreas and the thyroid were quickly removed and immediately frozen in isopentane cooled with liquid nitrogen. The specimens were then freeze-dried under vacuum ( $10^{-4}$ /mmHg) at -40 °C for 4 days and embedded in paraffin wax in vacuo. Sections, 5–7  $\mu$ m thick, were mounted on tape (Minnesota Mining and Manufacturing Co, U.S.A., Tape no. 688), fastened to photographic plates (G5 and K2, Hford) and exposed at -20 °C according to the microautoradiographic technique of Hammarström, Appelgren & Ullberg (1965) for isotopes in water-soluble form. After the exposure (which varied from 1 to 3 weeks) the tape was removed in xylol and the photographic plates were developed. The sections were stained with haematoxylin–eosin.

Metabolism of [14C]nicotine in vitro. Tissue slices of the pancreas and the liver (as a reference) weighing together 150 mg were incubated with  $0.5~\mu$ Ci [14C]nicotine in Krebs-Henseleit phosphate buffer for 2 h according to Hansson, Hoffman & Schmiterlöw (1964). The tissues from four mice were used in a separate incubation. After incubation the slices were homogenized and the homogenate was extracted with chloroform: methanol (2:1, v/v) (Stålhandske, Slanina, Tjälve, Hansson & Schmiterlöw, 1969). The radioactivity obtained in the different phases was determined in a Packard Tri-Carb liquid scintillation counter. Combined mean recoveries of the added activity in various fractions were between 80 and 85 %. The chloroform phase was subjected to thin-layer chromatography on silica-gel plates (Stahl, 1962) using ethanol:acctone:benzene:cone. NH<sub>4</sub>OH (5:40:50:5, by vol.) as a solvent. Radioactive compounds were located by exposing the plate to Kodak No-screen X-ray film for about 4 weeks. After the development of the film the appropriate spots on the plates were scraped off and the activity was determined.

# RESULTS

Autoradiographic studies with [14C]nicotine

Mice

On the whole-body autoradiograms of the mice injected with [14C]nicotine, a marked accumulation of radioactivity could be seen in the pancreatic islets. The accumulation was seen at 5 min (Pl. 1, fig. 1), it was high up to 30 min (Pl. 1, fig. 2), then declined a little at 1 h and disappeared after 2 h. The concentration of radioactivity was comparable to that seen in the adrenal medulla.

The microautoradiographic studies with [3H]nicotine (Pl. 2, fig. 3) revealed a

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rather uniform distribution of radioactivity throughout the islet with most of the cells being labelled. Labelling could be seen over both the nucleus and the cytoplasm of the cells. The radioactivity in the exocrine pancreas was considerably lower than in the islet.

In the thyroid an accumulation of radioactivity could be observed from 5 min to 1 h after the injection of [14C]nicotine, similar to the pancreatic islets. The highest accumulation in the thyroid was confined to some spots scattered over the gland (Pl. 3, fig. 4).

The microautoradiograms of the thyroid showed that the labelling was mainly concentrated in the cells situated in or between the follicular walls (Pl. 3, fig. 5) with a distribution pattern resembling that of the parafollicular cells.

#### Chicks

The results mentioned above indicated that nicotine accumulated in the region of the mouse thyroid where there are parafollicular 'C' cells, known to produce and store calcitonin in mammals. In birds the UBG are known to be the main source of calcitonin, thus corresponding functionally to the 'C' cells of mammals (see Introduction). The extrathyroidal localization of the UBG in birds (Garlich, 1971) renders them especially suitable for our studies as it makes it possible to compare directly the accumulation of label in the thyroid and the UBG on the same whole-body autoradiogram.

The whole-body autoradiograms of the chicks showed a high uptake of radioactivity in the UBG 5 and 30 min after the injection of [14C]nicotine (Pl. 4, fig. 6). The radioactivity exceeded that in the blood by about 2-4 times. Two hours after the injection no labelling was detectable. The thyroid, on the other hand, showed a concentration of radioactivity which corresponded to or was only slightly higher than that of the blood within 30 min after the injection. The radioactivity disappeared after 2 h.

Thus from the present results there is a strong indication that the cells which produce and store calcitonin are also able to take up and accumulate nicotine.

# Metabolic studies

Nicotine has been found to be rapidly metabolized by various organs in mice (Hansson *et al.* 1964; Stålhandske, 1970). To see if metabolism of nicotine also takes place in the pancreas, an in-vitro study of the metabolism of [14C]nicotine in pancreatic slices was carried out.

Incubation of [ $^{14}$ C]nicotine with pancreatic slices showed that the pancreas of the mouse lacks the ability to metabolize nicotine to any appreciable extent. After the extraction of the incubation mixture with chloroform: methanol (2:1, v/v) there was almost total recovery of radioactivity in the chloroform phase when compared with the control (Table 1). The radiochromatograms of the chloroform phase showed only one major radioactive spot with an  $R_F$  value corresponding to that of nicotine (Text-fig. 1). Some activity always remained at the origin but it amounted to only about 3% of the total activity in the chloroform phase.

The incubations with slices of the liver, which is known to be the main site of nicotine transformation (Hansson et al. 1964), were always run in parallel as reference

Table 1. Distribution of ra of [14C]nicotine with pancre extraction with chloroform 480000 c.p.m. in each flask

Control Pancrea Liver

Pancreas

Text-fig. 1. Autoradiogrammetabolites extracted in the nancreas slices, liver slices benzenethere. NH<sub>4</sub>OH (5: Only the liver slices show  $(R_F 0.35)$ ,  $\gamma$ -(3-pyridyl)- $\gamma$ -o  $(R_F 0.13)$ , 'Y'  $(R_F 0.06)$  (for

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Table 1. Distribution of radioactivity in various chemical fractions after the incubation of [14C]nicotine with pancreatic and liver slices from mice (incubation time = 2 h) and extraction with chloroform: methanol (2:1, v/v) (3.4  $\mu g$  [14C]nicotine equivalent to  $480\,000$  c.p.m. in each flask)

		Percentage of total radioactivity recovered		
	Tissuo	Chloroform phase	Water-methanol phase	* =
	Control (boiled liver slices) Pancreas Liver	99-0 98-8 89-3	1·0 1·2 10·7	
A A				$R_F$
4				0.58
				0.35
	<b>A A</b>			0.22
	7 7			0.18
	• . •			0-13
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Pancreas	Liver	Controls	Standards	
			Nicotine Cotinine	:

Text-fig. 1. Autoradiogram of a thin-layer chromatogram, showing nicotine and nicotine metabolites extracted in the chloroform phase after incubation of  $I^{14}$ C]nicotine with mouse pancreas slices, liver slices and controls (boiled liver slices). Solvent system, ethanol:acetone: benzene:conc. NH<sub>4</sub>OH (5:40:50:5, by vol.); solvent front, 12·5 cm; exposure time, 4 weeks, Only the liver slices show metabolism of nicotine. Components: nicotine  $(R_F 0.58)$ , cotinine  $(R_F 0.35)$ ,  $\gamma$ -(3-pyridyl)- $\gamma$ -oxo-N-methyl-butyramide  $(R_F 0.22)$ , 'X'  $(R_F 0.18)$ , hydroxycotinine  $(R_F 0.13)$ , 'Y'  $(R_F 0.08)$  (for identification of components see Stålhandske, 1970).

standards. The radiochromatograms of the chloroform phase (where about 90% of the radioactivity was recovered) showed several separate radioactive metabolites (Text-fig. 1), the major metabolite having an  $R_F$  value corresponding to that of cotinine. This result is in accordance with earlier studies on the metabolism of nicotine by the mouse liver in vitro (Hansson et al. 1964; Stålhandske, 1970).

# Autoradiographic study with [14C]cotinine

The lack of nicotine-metabolizing activity in the pancreatic slices observed in vitro does not rule out the possibility that in-vivo metabolites of nicotine can be trans-

ferred to the pancreas from other organs. The whole-body autoradiograms from the mice injected with the main nicotine metabolite cotinine, did not, however, show any specific accumulation of radioactivity in the pancreatic islets. The activity present in the pancreatic islets did not exceed the activity in the blood at any of the time intervals studied (Pl. 4, fig. 7). Neither could any specific accumulation of radioactivity be observed in the thyroid gland after the injection of [14C]cotinine.

### DISCUSSION

The results of the present investigation show that the injection of radioactive nicotine into mice leads to the accumulation of label in the cells of the pancreatic islets and in some cells of the thyroid, most probably identical with calcitonin-producing 'C' cells. Similarly, a high concentration of radioactivity can be seen in the calcitonin-producing UBG of chicks after the injection of [14C]nicotine.

Administration of [14C]cotinine, which in mice has been shown to be a principal metabolite of nicotine (Hansson & Schmiterlöw, 1962; Hansson et al. 1964; Stålhandske, 1970), did not result in any specific accumulation of radioactivity either in the pancreatic islets or in the thyroid. This, together with the results of metabolic studies which showed the inability of the mouse pancreas to metabolize [14C]nicotine to any significant extent in vitro, indicates that the radioactivity observed in the endocrine organs studied represents mainly the unchanged nicotine.

The cells of the pancreatic islets as well as the calcitonin-producing cells of the UBG have been shown to receive parasympathetic and/or sympathetic innervation (Coupland, 1958; Libman & Sutherland, 1965; Cegrell, 1968; Hodges & Gould, 1969; Lever & Findlay, 1971). Since the resolution of the present autoradiograms does not permit differentiation between nerve fibres and cells, it cannot be excluded that in addition to the accumulation in the parenchymal cells there may also be an uptake in nerve endings.

As mentioned in the Introduction, nicotine has also been shown to be accumulated in other endocrine cell systems such as the hypophysis and the adrenal medulla (Hansson & Schmiterlöw, 1962). Like several polypeptide hormone-producing organs, the cells of pancreatic islets and the parafollicular cells of the thyroid as well as the ultimobranchial main cells possess the ability to concentrate and store certain monoamines such as dopamine and serotonin either endogenously or after the injection of precursors (Falck & Hellman, 1963; Falck et al. 1964; Ritzén et al. 1965; Larson, Owman & Sundler, 1966; Cegrell, 1968; Tjälve, 1971). In addition, they are known to show a positive reaction for pseudo- or true cholinesterase (Coupland, 1958; Carvalheira & Pearse, 1967; Pearse, 1969; Welsch & Pearse, 1969).

The accumulation of nicotine in the endocrine cell systems might indicate that nicotine could share common transport and/or storage mechanisms with biogenic amines in the cells.

Both the catecholamines and serotonin have been shown to effect directly the release of insulin in various animal species (Porte, 1964; Malaisse, Malaisse-Lagae, Wright & Ashmore, 1967; Telib, Raptis, Schröder & Pfeiffer, 1968; Feldman & Lebovitz, 1970; Feldman, Boyd & Lebovitz, 1971; Lundquist, 1971; Tjälve, 1971). The secretion of calcitonin could also be affected by catecholamines (Bates, Bruce &

Care, 1969; Philippo, Bri A stimulatory effect of acauthors (Malaisse et al. 19 & Lebovitz, 1970). The prothe calcitonin-producing a effect of this drug on the re-

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In in-vitro experiments with rabbit pancreatic pieces, nicotine has been found to exert an effect on insulin release (Tjälve & Popov, 1973). The effect was twofold with inhibition of insulin secretion at a high concentration of nicotine but stimulation of insulin secretion at a low concentration of nicotine.

An effect of nicotine on hormone storage and/or release might take place via interference with the biogenic amines, present within the hormone-producing cells, and may be of importance in the release of the hormones produced by the cells. Since nervous mechanisms have been shown to be of importance in the secretion of insulin (Kaneto, Kosaka & Nakao, 1967; Malaisse et al. 1967), it also seems possible that an effect via nerves may contribute to the nicotinic influence on insulin secretion.

In the central nervous system nicotine is known to cause changes in turnover rates of catecholamine, serotonin and acetylcholine both in vivo and in vitro (e.g. Pepeu, 1965; Armitage & Hall, 1967; Bhagat, Kramer & Seifter, 1967; Goodman & Weiss, 1972). The influence of nicotine on the adrenal medulla shows a similar pattern to that of nicotine on insulin secretion; small doses stimulate the secretion of catecholamines from the adrenal medulla, while large doses of nicotine prevent their release in response to nerve stimulation (Volle & Koelle, 1970). Nicotine has also been reported to cause depletion of serotonin from the gastrointestinal mucosa when administered to rats in small, but not in high concentrations (Thompson, 1968; Thompson, Spezia & Angulo, 1969). Most of the gastrointestinal serotonin is stored in the enterochromaffin cells (see Håkansson, 1970) which are also considered to belong to the cells of the amine precursor uptake and decarboxylation series (Pearse, 1969).

The distribution of nicotine observed in the present investigation is similar to that seen after the injection of atropine and some local anaesthetics (Albanus, Hammarström, Sundwall, Ullberg & Vangbo, 1968; Ullberg & Hammerström, 1969; Slanina & Tjālve, 1972; P. Slanina, H. Tjālve, J. Hammerström & S. Ullberg, in preparation). Like nicotine, these drugs have been shown to accumulate in the pancreatic islets, the parafollicular cells of the thyroid, the hypophysis and the adrenal medulla. The ability of the cells of the APUD group to accumulate drugs, such as nicotine, atropine and local anaesthetics, which influence adrenergic or cholinergic mechanisms, might be considered to be yet another common characteristic shared by these endocrine cells. All these drugs may affect the release of the hormones produced by the different cell systems via an influence on the biogenic amines in the cells.

The investigation was supported by the American Medical Association (Education and Research Foundation), the Swedish Tobacco Co. and 'Ragnar and Torsten Söderbergs Stiftelse'.

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END 58

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# DESCRIPTION OF PLATES

#### PLATE 1

Fig. 1. Detail of a whole-body autoradiogram of a mouse 5 min after an i.v. injection of [14C]nicotine. Note the accumulation of radioactivity (light areas) in the pancreatic islets. A high concentration of radioactivity can also be seen in the kidney.

Fig. 2. Detail of a whole-body autoradiogram of a mouse 30 min after an i.v. injection of [16C]nicotine. An uptake of radioactivity (light areas) can be seen in the panercatic islets. A high concentration of radioactivity is also present in the liver and the kidney.

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Fig. 3. Microautoradiogram of a panereatic islet of a mouse 30 min after an i.v. injection of [<sup>3</sup>H]nicotine. The activity is distributed throughout the whole islet. Ilford K2 nuclear plate. Haematoxylin-eosin. (×380.)

#### PLATE 3

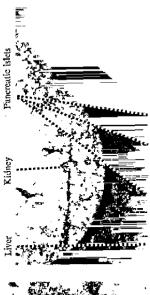
Fig. 4. Detail of a whole-body autoradiogram of a mouse 30 min after an i.v. injection of [15C]nicotine. There is a high concentration (black grains) of radioactivity in some spots scattered all over the thyroid gland.

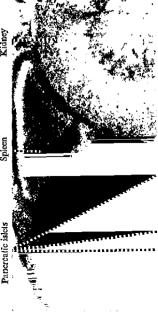
Fig. 5. Microautoradiogram of a thyroid of a mouse 30 min after an i.v. injection of [ $^*$ H]nicotine. The strongest labelling can be seen in some cells situated in or between the follicular walls, probably the parafollicular cells. Ilford G5 nuclear plate. Haematoxylin-cosin. ( $\times$  400.)

#### PLATE 4

Fig. 6. Detail of a whole-body autoradiogram of a male chick 30 min after an i.v. injection of [16C]nicotine. A high concentration of radioactivity is present in the ultimobranchial body. The thyroid shows a very low level of radioactivity. A comparison with the isotope staircase (top of the figure), where each step represents a double amount of radioactivity, shows that the radioactivity in the ultimobranchial gland exceeds that of the thyroid by 2-4 times.

Fig. 7. (a) Detail of a whole-body autoradiogram of a mouse 5 min after an i.v. injection of [14C]cotinine. (b) A corresponding section stained with haematoxylin-eosin. The radioactivity in the pancreatic islets does not exceed the radioactivity in the exocrine pancreas or in the blood of the blood-vessel.





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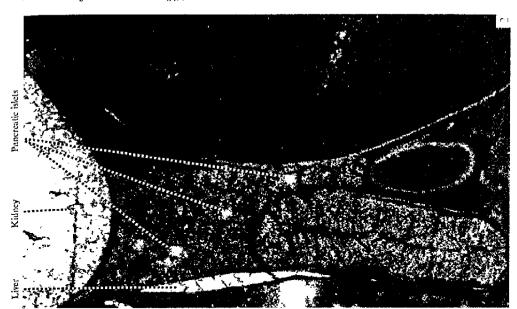
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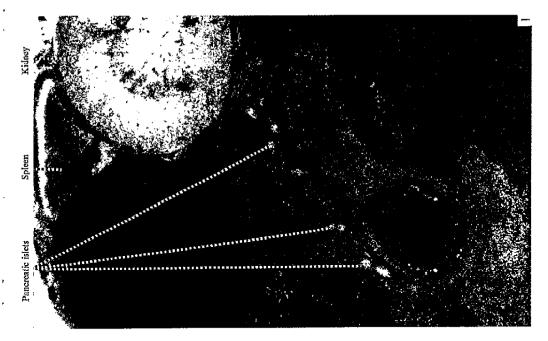
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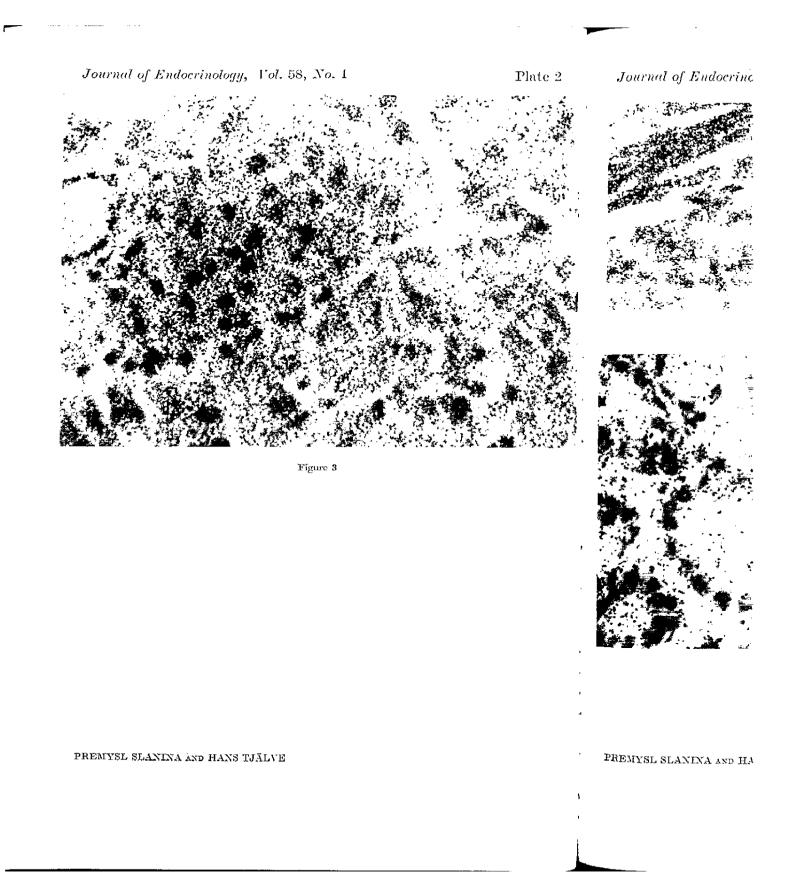
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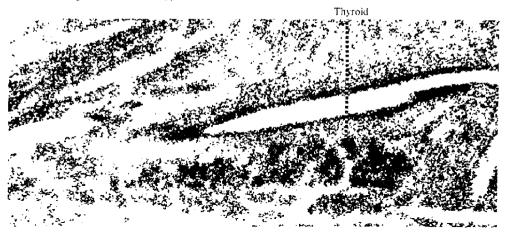


Figure 4

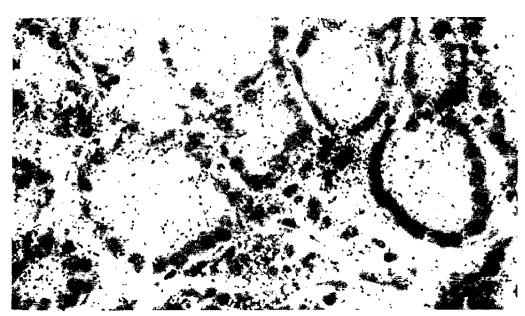


Figure 5

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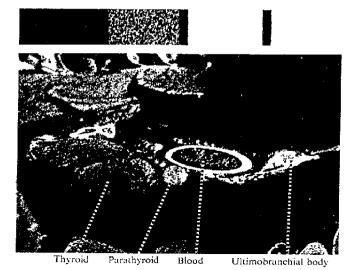


Figure 6

Pancreatic islets
Pancreatic islets

Figure 7

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Plate 4

J. Endocr. (1973), 58, 31-39
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\* Guest Investigator at the U-Investigaciones Biomedicas, Uni-

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